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The JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

COMMUNITY AGENCIES AND CHARACTER GROWTH

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MARCH 1937

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

The building of character continues to be accepted by school people as the all-inclusive objective. Broadly conceived, it takes in all our carefully phrased cardinal objectives. This is well illustrated in the very superior statement of "The Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education" prepared a few years ago by the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York State Council of Superintendents and published by the New York State Department of Education. The proposed six cardinal objectives can be reduced to the following key words: social relationships, self-expression, critical thinking, worth-while activities, knowledge and skills, and health. After analyzing many critical evaluations of these objectives in which the omission of "character education" was most frequently mentioned, the committee concludes that "all six of these objectives contribute to the attainment of character, that to the extent these six objectives are pursued character will be attained."

There is, however, an ever-present danger in this broad concept of character education; namely, the tendency to let things take care of themselves. Teachers may become more concerned over critical thinking and social relationships than book knowledge of history, more concerned over self-expression than sentence structure, and so on, all of which is fine. But, as educators of American youth, we also must study and manipulate his environment and guide his reactions to it in such a manner that socially adequate characters and

well-integrated personalities emerge. Furthermore, we as adults need to be conscious of objectives and processes—hence the need for carefully thought-out programs of character building.

Such programs will perforce call upon the many factors and forces that play upon and are a part of the child's environment. The December 1930 issue of *THE JOURNAL* gave somewhat of a systematic discussion of theory underlying various aspects of character education as presented by various contributors under the general direction of the special editor in charge of the current issue. The December 1933 issue reported some thirty experiments in character education under the direction of Professor Charles C. Peters at Pennsylvania State College. The current issue of *THE JOURNAL* reports desirable local and State-wide policies and practices now in process of development, suggests the contributions of mental hygiene, urges closer affiliation on the part of schools and churches with coöperating agencies interested in character education, and finally indicates the point of view and general procedure most likely to bring success to school programs of character building in our present society.

F. C. BORGESON

THE MENTAL HYGIENIST LOOKS AT CHARACTER EDUCATION

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH
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I

At 9.00 you twirl your radio dial, and bring in "Vox Pop" on station WEAf. In the concourse of Grand Central Station a microphone has been set up. As people surge in and out, to and from the trains, individuals are cut out from the crowd and herded before the microphone. "What is your name?" "John Jones." "Where do you live, Mr. Jones?" "Mount Vernon." "What is your occupation?" "I'm a bookkeeper." "Are you married?" "Yes." "Fine, Mr. Jones, now will you tell us the difference between cerise and magenta." "Well—" "If your wife brought home a magenta dress, and you said 'What a lovely cerise, my dear,' would—" "Oh, sure, cerise is bright red like a cherry, and magenta is darker." "Pretty good, pretty good. A lot of women who are listening wish their husbands had as much idea of the color of the dresses they wear."

"Now, Mr. Jones, can you tell us what character is?" "Sure, that one's easy. When you do something you shouldn't do, you have a bad character." "What, for instance?" "Well, if you steal something, or don't support your wife—" "But not your mother-in-law, eh, Mr. Jones? And now, Mr. Jones, why does doing things like those make you a bad character?" "Oh, I guess it's just that people don't do things like that." "All right, Mr. Jones, and now just one more question . . ."

If a professor of ethics has been listening, he has already started twirling his dial again, looking for chamber music, meanwhile reflecting that it is no wonder the papers are full of crime news when that is the man in the street's conception of character. Yet, wherever we find men passing judgment as to the character of an-

other man, we are likely to find them thinking just as did John Jones. This man has character; that man lacks character. Why? Because this man does the things we hold good and approve, while that man does not do them. Why are these things approved and held good? Because the community approves them and holds them good. John Jones has perhaps more understanding of the nature of character than the professor of ethics.

Certainly the anthropologist and sociologist would support John Jones's point of view. They would point out that man's values—his conceptions of right and wrong, of good and bad, of desirable and undesirable behavior—vary from one part of the world to another, from one culture to another, with the values of the community. Pascal long ago commented on this fact:

. . . there is hardly an idea of justice or injustice which does not change with climate. Three degrees of latitude reverse all jurisprudence. The meridian decides the truth. The entrance of Saturn into the sign of the Lion marks the origin of a certain crime. Wonderful justice which is bounded by a river! Truth this side of Pyrenees, error on that!

As values vary from one culture to another, so do conceptions of character. In our own culture, infanticide and parricide are atrocious crimes. No one who committed them would be held to have good character. Yet in the Soloman Islands it was the custom to put to death one's children and to buy others from neighboring islands. Among a tribe in Africa it is the custom to put your parents to death while they are young enough to enjoy the next world. In these cultures, the man of good character kills his children or his parents; the man of bad character fails to do so.

Character, then, is a relative thing. It is the reflection in the attitudes and behavior of the individual, of the values and mores of the culture in which he lives. The majority of the forces which the community consciously brings to bear upon the growing child are of the nature of character education—are attempts on the part of the community to build its values and standards into the behavior of the

child. Character education in the schools is but one, though possibly the most planful one of these attempts.

II

The behavior of the child is, to begin with, solely a matter of impulse. He comes into the world with definite needs, which can be satisfied only by action upon his environment. His needs set up tensions which impel him to act on his environment—to cry, to struggle, to reach, to grasp, to crawl, to pry, to meddle, to appropriate, to destroy. His behavior reflects only his inner need; it is wholly without social reference.

But the child is born into a world of organized social relationships, a world of persons who, out of past generations of living together, have evolved very definite patterns of social behavior. These patterns constitute the custom or culture of the community. They embody the community's definitions of situations and standards of behaving. The child slowly learns that his needs can be met only on the terms of his social world, by conforming to its definitions and standards. The child is not left, however, to discover this for himself. The adults who make up his social world go to work immediately to build into his behavior the attitudes, standards, and values of the community—first, in the family; later, in the school and in the relationships of the community.

In trying to resolve his earliest and most elementary bodily tensions, those associated with hunger and elimination, the child encounters the definitions of the community—of time, of place, of approved behavior—as his mother establishes a regimen, later to be supplemented by verbal definition. During early childhood, in a thousand situations, he finds that between his impulse and its satisfaction must intervene behavior of which the community approves. As his world broadens, he encounters the even more rigid patterns of the school, the more aggressive attitudes of his fellows. As an adult he will find that the satisfactions of love and of labor are also to be had only on the terms of the mores of the community.

From the cry of birth the child protests. It is of the nature of impulse to seek satisfaction in as direct and immediate a fashion as possible. The child resists those adult definitions of situations which stand between his impulses and their immediate satisfaction. As he grows older, he meets them with hostility and aggression, which bring him into conflict with the world around him.

Conflict is a normal phenomenon of growing up. It is possible to overestimate the destructiveness of conflict. Indeed conflict is necessary to the development of a healthy, effective, integrated personality. The person who has not learned to handle his conflicts as a child will be unable to meet successfully the conflict situations that are an inevitable part of adult living.

There is, however, another side to this picture. All too many children fail to learn to handle their conflicts in childhood. They emerge into adult life crippled by resentment toward authority, rejecting the values and standards of the community, fighting back against the community. Among them are numbered a large proportion of the community's delinquents, criminals, and antisocial individuals. Or they emerge into adult life filled with anxiety concerning the attitudes of the community, accepting its values and standards, but personally ineffective, neurotic.

These are the children who find their way, through court or clinic, to the mental hygienist. As he watches them thronging past, year after year, the mental hygienist wonders whether the community is not paying too high a price for character. The mental hygienist recognizes the necessity of character. He recognizes that group living is impossible unless the community can build its standards and values into its growing members as character. But he wonders whether a way might not be found to build character, in the wake of which would follow less maladjustment and misery. He is hopeful that such a way will be found, as the school, with understanding and knowledge, undertakes consciously and planfully "character education."

III

The community, from time immemorial, has met the resistance of its growing members with what W. I. Thomas calls "the ordering and forbidding technique." It has said "do" and "don't." It has met resistances as they arose, with a precept in one hand and a whip in the other. It has met aggression with coercion. The fact that much of its adult code had little meaning to the child, was arbitrary and inscrutable, has rarely concerned the community.

The school has, by and large, employed the technique of the community. It has perhaps used precept more generously—as those of us who were brought up on McGuffey's incomparable readers well know. But when precept proves ineffective, the school also resorts to ordering, forbidding, and coercion. Wickman's recent study, *Teachers' Attitudes and Children's Behavior*, amply demonstrates this fact. And the school, like the community, pays too high a price for the character it achieves.

Now, we long ago discovered reading, writing, and arithmetic cannot be taught by ordering and forbidding—that they must be related to the living interests of growing children, and that this is best done through an activity program. Yet it is amazing how frequently one finds a school where the traditional subjects have disappeared to emerge as parts of an activity program, only to find that character education is still taught largely by precept. The materials that embody precept are ingeniously devised, intriguingly prepared, and written in the language of the child's experiences. But still the attempt is to trick the child's interest, rather than to afford him an opportunity to live his way into character.

If the child is to accept the code of the community, he must find that code satisfying in his day-by-day living. He will not find that code satisfying if his encounters with it result largely in the arbitrary disruption of his activities. He will find it satisfying only as community and school planfully provide experiences in which the

standards and values of our culture contribute to satisfying group living.

When community and school provide such experiences, we will have the right to talk of character education. At such a time, the mental hygienist believes, character will be achieved at the cost of less conflict between child and community, at the cost of less anti-social behavior and neurosis. Character education will not be, cannot be, however, the special province of the school. The school can play a significant role, but perhaps not the most important role. Character is the result of all those experiences through which the growing child comes into contact with the standards and values of the community.

Crowded conditions of tenement life, the recreational life of the city's streets, the antisocial values too frequently presented by newspaper, radio, and motion picture—these provide experiences in the living of which the community's values are unlikely to prove satisfying. The school that would talk of character education must look beyond the experiences it offers the child to a place in a coördinated community program for character.

SOME FEATURES OF THE DENVER PROGRAM OF CHARACTER EDUCATION

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AUTHOR'S NOTE. *The reader may legitimately ask: "If you don't have a character-education program, why this article?" It is true that we in Denver do not have anything that we customarily point to as our character-education program. But the matter goes deeper than that. The development of character certainly is one of our major objectives. Therefore, we must have some plan or program that is designed to achieve this objective. Whether or not our plan or procedure is likely to achieve our objective with desirable efficiency, we will leave to the reader to judge, pending the development of more adequate techniques than we now have for appraising results.*

"What is your program of character education?" is a frequent question. The Denver educator is likely to make one of two replies: "We don't have a formal program; character education is informal or indirect," or else, we quote the words of a principal with deeper insight, "We don't have anything else but."

THE WAY IT WORKS

Here are replies typical of those given by principals and teachers when asked the above question. An elementary-school principal stated with emphasis: "I tell my teachers constantly that I don't give a snap of my fingers about reading and arithmetic unless they come after learning to live together decently. In my district the fellow quickest and most effective with his fists has commanded the most respect. Gangs have dominated much of the community life of the younger people. Instead of talking about this, we try to help the children apply good principles of coöperation in all classroom and school activities—the sharing of materials, working together on

common projects, getting together in a friendly spirit when differences arise. We think we are getting results."

A senior-high-school teacher responded: "The whole program is aimed toward meeting the pupils' needs, individual and social. Character education is an integral part of all this. We are constantly alert to sense individual and group difficulties and needs in behavior as well as subject matter. We are constantly dealing with these problems both in groups and individually."

Another senior-high-school teacher affirmed the above idea and added: "For example, yesterday the audience in assembly was terrible. The next period in my class we just dropped everything else and analyzed that situation. The remarks I heard at noon indicated that many other teachers had done the same thing. Again, I was observing my homeroom class in another situation, and felt that their responses were not consistent with the objectives which we had adopted. The next time the class was in my room, we laid our cards on the table and talked through the situation."

ARE WE KIDDING OURSELVES?

But what do such statements really mean? It is easy to hide inadequate planning behind the rationalization "character education is informal or indirect." Since good character is an objective of education, should we not plan for it and proceed with some sense of direction toward its realization? On the other hand, to say that desirable character is the objective of the whole school curriculum might easily be one way of begging the question or dodging the issue. Let us analyze these generalizations a bit further.

In the first place, let us check our vocabulary. Informal is not a synonym for indirect. A formal class in ethics or citizenship and the informal discussion of auditorium conduct cited above are both direct attacks upon behavior and character development. They differ in respect to certain characteristics of planning and procedure; but, make no mistake, each is planned and well planned, if it is

effective. Notice the high-school teacher's reference to "the objectives which we had adopted."

Methods that are indirect produce their results without directly dealing with behavior or behavior objectives. A healthy, wholesome environment will indirectly contribute much to desirable character; but, granted the best of environments, it would seem absurd to consider the possibility of educating children without dealing directly at many times with questions of behavior and its social and moral implications. Therefore, if we are clear in vocabulary and thinking, we will recognize that informal and indirect methods in character education, if effectively used, will involve well-formulated objectives and well-planned procedures.

In respect to the claim that the whole curriculum aims at character education, we must again be sure that we are using the same vocabulary. Here character is given a very broad interpretation. The man of desirable character is here interpreted as one who is well equipped with the attitudes, purposes, behavior patterns, knowledges, and skills that will ensure his effective functioning in his social environment; in other words, an equipment that will enable him to pursue successfully "a way of living that conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible."¹ To say that a school curriculum aims to facilitate the development of such individuals is surely to set up a worthy objective and one as tangible as any single general objective can be made.

In the remainder of this article I shall attempt to describe some of the major considerations that perhaps justify the Denver educator in saying that his whole program is a character-education program. May I say in the beginning, however, that any such claim is made with humility. We are very much aware of many deficiencies. Educators from many other systems could make the same claim, perhaps, with even more justification.

¹ Tenth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association 1932, p. 59.

TEACHER HOLDS KEY POSITION

One of the most important considerations is the character of the teaching staff. The Denver school system has for sixteen years operated under a single salary schedule for its teachers. Under such a schedule, teachers with equivalent training and experience are paid the same salaries, whether they teach in senior high school, junior high school, elementary school, or special school. Thus just as good teaching talent is attracted to and held in the elementary schools as in the high schools. The salary schedule is high enough to attract good teachers. Tenure, sick leave, and pension provisions are well above average. Encouragement is given teachers to continue professional study and growth. A survey of 1933 showed that 74 per cent of all teachers in the Denver schools had four years or more of formal education above high school as compared with 34 per cent for the country as a whole. In our elementary schools 54 per cent of the teachers meet these qualifications as compared with 12 per cent for the country as a whole and 22 per cent in cities of 100,000 population or over. Furthermore, 24 per cent of the training of our elementary-school teachers was secured after their appointment to the Denver schools. This is only a part of the story, of course. These facts are cited as illustrative of an earnest effort to secure a staff of competent, well-trained teachers and to give them reasonable economic and professional security.

DEMOCRATICALLY ADMINISTERED CURRICULUM ESSENTIAL

Next in importance to the teaching staff stands the curriculum of the schools. Throughout the last fourteen years the Denver schools have consistently and aggressively attempted to develop curricula that more adequately meet the living needs of our children and youth. In 1927 we said: "On the whole the dominant note in the philosophy of the Denver curriculum committees undoubtedly has been that of pupil growth through purposeful activity in life

situations, looking toward the acquisition of the best that the social inheritance has to give with reference to full and complete living in the world today."² We still have much to achieve before we shall have put our philosophy into general practice, but the philosophy has made a very great difference. The comments from principals and teachers cited at the beginning of this discussion are submitted as evidence. Let us notice a few more illustrations of this philosophy.

For one thing, this philosophy has made us more and more sensitive to the present life needs of our children and youth. Frequently we make studies of our own in relation to this problem; we watch for the researches of others; we observe our children, compare, and experiment. In relation to experimental classes in our senior high schools, last year we formulated this statement regarding the needs of youth which are a product of the present social scene:³

1. Youth find it difficult to feel that they are having any part in the real activities of a society which is so organized that most adults engage in highly specialized occupations in which young people cannot share. . . . Schools have in part become places where pupils are kept away from "real life" experiences.

2. Youth live in a society where purposes, methods, and abilities are in doubt. . . . They want some security and they need a glowing faith in the rightness of life's essential purposes if they are to experience the normal, healthy, attitudes of youth.

3. Youth share with adults the vocational insecurity of our society. . . . Youth tend to be fearful of the future; they feel themselves in danger of being denied the normal activities of adult life: a job, vocational advancement, marriage, a home, children, economic and social security.

4. Youth are the prey of direct, but often blind, action groups with all sorts of interests and purposes which seek their loyalty, groups wishing to return to the glories of the past and groups wishing a Utopia in the future.

5. Some unscrupulous advertisers seek to develop a fear psychology

² *The Denver Program of Curriculum Revision*. Monograph No. 12, 1927, p. 21.

³ Denver Public Schools, *Handbook for the Application of Progressive Education Principles to Secondary Education*, September 1936, p. 1.

among youth making them fearful and insecure as to their personality, health, speech, skin, breath, hands, finger nails, teeth, manners, general appearance, and social position. The unhappiness attendant upon self-consciousness and imaginary fears is a very real danger to mental health.

6. Youth is the victim of those multitudinous opportunities to fritter away time which mark our present civilization.

When we add to these and other problems which have their origin in our particular social structure the needs of youth that are true of any age and time, we have the basis of a curriculum that cannot in any of its phases dodge the demands of character education. Character functions in meeting every life situation. Wise and skillful education provides a curriculum in which pupils have opportunities to meet these life problems under conditions that are favorable to success, to growth, and to desirable character development.

Another illustration of how this curriculum philosophy affects our program will be found in a growing effort to integrate more effectively the life of the pupil in the school and in the community. Visits of classes and committees to business, civic, and cultural points of interest in the community are of growing significance. At the junior-high-school level, we are finding help in the study booklets of the Civics Research Institute. These outline plans and procedures for coöperative study of community civics through actual study of the community itself. We have used them experimentally in several classes and plan an extension of their use.⁴

In one of our senior high schools last year a 12A class experimented in spending the afternoon of each day for seven weeks in gaining vocational experience in offices, workshops, hospitals, teacher-training institutions, and the like. A background had been prepared for this during the previous year, and after the experience a careful summary of the results was attempted.⁵

⁴ *A Cooperative Study in Community Civics*, conducted by the Civics Research Institute, 3506 Patterson Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

⁵ Denver Public Schools, *A Report of an Experiment in Vocational Guidance at South High School*, September 1936.

Coöperative planning of class and school activities, often coöperative planning of the entire semester's program of a class, coöperative appraisal of activities, class projects that involve coöperation from parents—this is often particularly interesting and helpful in foreign neighborhoods—are examples of other ways in which we have attempted to apply our curriculum philosophy. For example, a group of high-school girls requested a class in home-making. At the first meeting the possibilities of such a course were presented and discussed. The girls were asked to talk with their mothers that night and to bring to the next meeting of the class the suggestions that they and their mothers would like to present. The next day these suggestions filled the blackboard and the class sorted them over and organized them into units for the course. The teacher testified that the course adequately covered the possibilities and the pupils pursued it enthusiastically for it was in truth their course.

One more comment on the curriculum may be helpful. Last year a committee attacked the job of formulating guiding principles and objectives for the classes in our senior high school that are experimenting in the development of a more adequate high-school curriculum. The three basic goals which the committee adapted from the Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence show again the effect of our curriculum philosophy. They were stated as follows:⁶

1. Consistent growth in the ability of the individual to adjust creatively to his own inner life, to recognize limitations, and to build out of his powers and interests an integrated, enriched, and resourceful personality.
2. Consistent growth in the ability of the individual to live well with others in personal, civic, economic, and all other relationships.
3. Consistent growth in the ability of the individual to adjust creatively to the world of nature and its laws.

What phases of character education are likely to be omitted in the development of a curriculum that seeks the fulfillment of these

⁶ Denver Public Schools, *Handbook for the Application of Progressive Education Principles to Secondary Education*, September 1936.

objectives? We do not yet have such a curriculum. We have some of the elements, perhaps, but there is still much to be done.

THE PROBLEM OF APPRAISAL, RECOGNITIONS, AND AWARDS

Another phase of an educational program that contributes vitally to the shaping of character is that dealing with the evaluation and appraisal of progress and achievement. What kind of behavior is recognized, praised, and rewarded? How is recognition bestowed; how are rewards granted? With what do the home reports deal? If practices in these matters could be brought into harmony with curriculum philosophy, we would, indeed, be making progress.

General practice in the Denver schools is quite traditional in these matters. Many experimental studies, however, are under way, one of which will be described briefly for it holds much promise. It is in operation in about fifteen classes in our senior high schools and in a limited number of junior-high-school and elementary-school classes. It is an attempt to make appraisal of educational growth and achievement a procedure in which pupils and parents cooperate with teachers in the keeping of a cooperative Educational Record. Not only is it cooperative, it is also more comprehensive. It accumulates data over the entire high-school period of six years. It attempts to deal with all the major objectives and areas of education; and data are used more directly, and again cooperatively, in planning future educational activities of the pupils.

The forms are made up into a sizeable booklet bound in a special filing folder and kept in a filing case in the homeroom where the pupils spend a class period of each day. The homeroom or counseling teacher considers that the activities involved in keeping and using these records are an important part of the curriculum experiences of pupils. The following types of data are gathered and recorded on appropriate forms covering grades 7 to 12:

1. Informal educational activities and experiences; interests and plans
2. Formal classwork and school marks

3. Standardized achievement test data
4. Appraisal in respect to ten general behavior patterns
5. Information concerning home and family
6. Record and appraisal of books read
7. Informal comments by teachers
8. Informal comments by pupils
9. Informal comments by parents
10. Teacher's summary in relation to the basic goals (listed above)

The pupil keeps his own record under the supervision of the counseling teacher. About four times a year he takes the entire record home for parental inspection. Certain other types of data and summaries from these pupil-kept records are recorded on the American Council Cumulative Record Cards for the official office record.

This whole procedure is still in a highly experimental stage, but it is consistent with the curriculum philosophy which we are seeking to apply in Denver. Its possibilities for character education are very great in the hands of teachers of proper qualifications.

TYPE OF LEADERSHIP IMPORTANT

There is one other general aspect of the Denver program that merits attention in this brief survey. Desirable character development is a dynamic process involving initiative, problem solving, creative attack upon puzzling situations, ability to gather and use data constructively. Pupils are much more likely to develop these attitudes and abilities if guided by teachers who, in turn, are encouraged to meet their own problems in like manner. The encouragement of democratic procedures, of creative experimentation, and of initiative in meeting educational problems has been at a high level in the Denver schools. There is still much to be desired, of course. Democratic techniques are still crude and inadequate in our society, and schools are no exceptions. But educators surely should be in the forefront in their mastery and use of democratic techniques and leadership. Denver has been fortunate in having

educational leadership of this character. The results can be seen throughout the system in teachers and pupils. It is a major factor in the indirect phases of Denver's character-education program.

SUMMARY

Thus the Denver program of character education does not involve formal courses or classes in morals, behavior, or citizenship. It does involve, however, a direct but informal attack upon the problems of character development through a curriculum of classes and school activities that attempts to help pupils meet more effectively and worthily their daily problems of living. It attempts, further, the creation of an environment conducive to healthy, wholesome character development. It is built upon the hypothesis that the most important factor in such an environment is a competent, well-trained, democratic teacher who enjoys a reasonable degree of economic and social security, and who is inclined to face professional and personal problems creatively and with courage.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES TO CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Threlkeld, A. L., "A Special Curriculum Is Not Needed for Character Education," *The Nation's Schools*, XI, 13-16, April 1933.

The Journal of the National Education Association beginning in October of 1930 and continuing through June of 1931 published a series of nine articles describing phases of the character-education program in Denver. The titles appeared as follows: "A Survey of Character Education in Denver," "Character Education in the Kindergarten," "The Report Card in Character Education," "Methods in Character Education," "Environment and Character Education," "Character Education in the Whittier School," "The Guidance Program in Denver," "Citizenship in the Junior High School," "Activity in Character Education."

NEW JERSEY'S PROGRAM OF CHARACTER EMPHASIS IN EDUCATION

ERNEST A. HARDING

New Jersey State Department of Education

What are the problems that would be profitable for a State committee to explore in a study of the forces at work on a child which affect what he is becoming?

What does educational method do to a child which should or should not be done to him?

If we think of the child as an organism which grows through a unitary process in which the physical, mental, and nervous factors are at work in close reciprocal interaction, what is the significance of active, participating experiencing as the core of the school offerings?

What needs further to be done to equip teachers with sufficient knowledge in the field of mental hygiene to cause them to view child behavior dispassionately, objectively, understandingly, and grow in the ability required to be artisans in child nurture through more thorough acquaintance with child nature?

Of what significance is the teacher's own mental health in relation to what changes are taking place in children?

Who is the juvenile delinquent mentally, educationally, physically, socially? Why is he as he is and what can schools do about it?

How can all teachers, all subjects, all parts of the school day contribute more fully to the acquisition of and the guided practice in the use of the desirable standards and values which constitute the functioning self called character?

What are some of the features of social life, of the many environments in which a child lives that destructively affect what he is becoming?

How can a State committee exploring these and many other allied questions effectively encourage on a state basis the modifica-

tion of practices that destructively affect most desirable personality growth?

These were a few of the many areas beckoning for exploration as the New Jersey State Character Education Committee began its series of deliberations and studies two years ago. The committee, which was initiated and appointed by Dr. Charles H. Elliott, State-Commissioner of Education, has published two documents and is now at work on two additional reports to be published in April and in November 1937.

The committee agreed at the outset that there was no single approach which would deserve being considered a program of character emphasis in education. It appeared evident that a great many approaches must be carried on simultaneously. With these in mind the following guiding principles were agreed upon as a base from which the committee might proceed with its task.

1. Provide all school people in the State with an opportunity to participate in the developing program
2. Set up in the first bulletin a tentative approach that would tend to stimulate the school groups throughout the State to self-activity and to contribute something to the program
3. Consider promising directions of effort that fall within the more or less exclusive sphere of functioning of the school itself
4. Also consider desirable areas of effort having to do with conditions surrounding the child's daily life in which the school has a shared responsibility with other social agencies

A brief organization of Bulletin No. 1 is as follows:

1. Foreword by the Commissioner of Education
2. What the committee plans to do

The committee realizes that there is no *one* place where the individual receives or can receive character education, for wherever life is lived the process goes on.

3. What can you do?

This section is addressed to persons in the major types of school positions.

4. Guiding principles

5. What is character?

Good character is best formed by exposing the individual to increasingly better and higher standards and values in action situations, which challenge the interest of the individual to such an extent and in such manner that he will accept for himself and make a part of himself the new or better standards or values.

Knowledge of a standard or value is not enough. Acceptance as a part of oneself of a standard or value is not enough. In order that desirable standards may become more permanently and more deeply a part of oneself rich opportunity must be given for exercising these standards and values with satisfaction to the individual in situations that arouse the active interest of the individual.

Such exposure under favorable conditions for acceptance and such exercise in applying one's standards and sense of values are effective in developing desirable personality and character to the extent that these situations provide the individual with opportunities on progressively higher levels of difficulty and complexity for situation analysis, decisions based on sound elements in a thinking process followed by numerous applications in meaningful situations after the "catching-hold" exposure experience.

By character, then, we mean the organized aggregate of one's tendencies to action considered with reference to standards of conduct and the values involved. Since all experience is educative, character is always in process of change and formation.

The individual builds standards of conduct as he learns to define, recognize, and accept the varying kinds of response demanded by varying types of situations. He builds his general moral outlook as he learns to act upon an even clearer insight into what is involved for himself and others in his own and others' conduct. There must here go together both insight and acceptance for appropriate action if the moral character is to be built; one without the other is immoral. The individual builds moral habits as he learns to act thus thoughtfully upon his ever-growing standards of conduct. Since character is the organized sum of all, he builds character as he interactively builds the better general outlook, better standards of conduct, better judging of situations, and surer action upon his

best attainable insight. If these things be successfully done in true interaction, there will surely follow appropriate habits and appreciations and surer sensitivities to values involved.

It is idle and worse to suppose that character can be built in any satisfactory fullness apart from action in life and its concrete situations. The school must provide such life, fairly full life too, not at the rawest to be sure but still not too sheltered. Character grows from the successful facing of situations that ever increase in difficulty and complexity.

6. Can public schools change character?
7. Case studies and incremental records
8. Bibliography and book reviews
9. Forms on which school executives, supervisors, principals, and teachers might report individual and group case studies, as well as reports on various teaching procedures that proved effective in desirably modifying behavior.

The second bulletin published consisted of a classified bibliography on character education for those who wished to carry on a study of one or more problems involved. This bulletin of seventy-one pages grouped references under the following headings:

1. Books and articles on character education
2. Mental hygiene, psychology, psychiatry
3. Various school subjects and educational method in relation to character education
4. Educational guidance
5. Social usage
6. For parents
7. Tests of personality and character
8. Coördinating community councils of social agencies

Bulletin No. 3 which is being published this spring will contain the following types of material:

1. Individual case studies

Individual case studies selected from a great many that have been sent in from numerous school systems from every county in the State. The committee is editing and arranging these case studies so that they will be of greatest help to the users of the bulletin in dealing with more or less similar problems which they face.

2. Group case studies

Again the material in this section consists of reports from the field on group situations of a great variety, with a description of the procedures used to control and guide the situation constructively.

3. Techniques and procedures

This section will contain reports on techniques and procedures used both in elementary schools and high schools, which were so handled that they provided as full an opportunity as possible for children being exposed to worth-while values and standards in situations that were interesting to them and in which pupils gained opportunity for actively exercising with satisfaction these worth-while values and standards.

The last in the series of reports projected will be published near the end of 1937. Studies are now in progress which will furnish material of three kinds for this bulletin:

1. A study will be reported which is attempting to answer three questions:

- a) Who is the juvenile delinquent in New Jersey physically, educationally, mentally, socially?
- b) Why is he as he is so far as can be ascertained from a study of all available facts on his case?
- c) What significance have these findings for schools?

Already one interesting finding indicates that 49 per cent of the delinquents studied have failed of promotion in the elementary school at least three times.

2. A group of reports indicating how school organization itself and the various school departments may utilize as fully as possible all opportunities for setting up and guiding situations that best tend to the acquisition and satisfying practice of desirable standards and values.

3. A check list of school practices is being developed in such manner that it may be used by school authorities as an analysis device in detecting points of strength and weakness in the school program with reference to their effects on the developing personalities.

Professional groups in the State have produced excellent reports allied closely to the emphases encouraged by the work of the Character Education Committee. Three of these reports are deserving of special mention.

The New Jersey Elementary Principals Association issued a report of an extensive study a year ago dealing with the problem of reducing pupil failure. The crushing sense of failure experienced by many children, resulting in many cases from failure to be promoted, has been known for some time to have a powerful effect on the developing personality. This report consists of a very comprehensive study of the causes of pupil failure and contains many helpful suggestions in dealing with the problem. A study of certain facts concerning 50,000 pupils in representative communities in New Jersey made by the writer constitutes the basis for a part of the recommendations of this report.

In coöperation with the State Character Education Committee the New Jersey Elementary Principals Association has just issued a report on school and community relationships entitled, "The School in Community Council." An interesting research study describes the nature of the various coöperative enterprises between the schools and the other social agencies in the community. Descriptions of the aims, organization, and procedures of a number of typical councils of social agencies and juvenile-delinquency councils lend emphasis to the need and value of a realistic coöperative approach to the task of filling some of the unfilled or poorly filled needs of youth.

A report of the Secondary Teachers Association which was prepared by a committee of the State Mental Hygiene Association deals with behavior problems in the secondary school. The mental-hy-

giene emphasis which is evident in many parts of the reports of the State Character Education Committee and in this report on behavior problems is also evident in the increased offerings in this field given in both in-service extension courses and in preservice courses in the State teachers colleges in mental hygiene.

The foregoing statements indicate among other things that, in the effort to improve the conditions under which personality and character might best develop, the program in New Jersey envisages many rather dynamic and realistically approached lines of attack.

The last question which this paper will attempt to answer has to do with the extent to which the program, as it has been developed thus far, is "catching hold." The following are a few of many indications that the program is catching hold:

1. Over two thousand individual and group case studies and other reports have been voluntarily submitted by many school districts in every one of the 21 counties of the State.
2. In some counties many meetings of county principals' associations, county institutes, and local faculty meetings have had their programs built around questions growing out of the character-emphasis concept.
3. This year in one city of 100,000 population, the faculty meetings for the whole year will center about analyses of the school program and the development of improvements growing out of the character emphasis in aim and method.
4. Many superintendents and principals report the initiation of local studies and activities which they do not believe would have been carried on but for the stimulation of this developing State program.
5. The work of the committee has evoked the interest of the State Congress of Parent-Teacher Associations, service clubs, etc., many of whom have appointed State and local character-education committees in order that they might also supplement the program in the schools.
6. One important indication of the interest aroused lies in the fact that the demand for the materials developed by the State Character Education Committee has exceeded the supply available.

COÖPERATING WITH CHARACTER-BUILDING AGENCIES

ELIZABETH R. PENDRY

Educational and Vocational Guidance Counselor, New York City

"Yes, this is the guidance counselor speaking. Oh, you're the new director of social activities for the local branch of Henry Street House. I'm glad to hear from you. We are so grateful to you for your help to Mrs. Peters last week. I should have called you. Yes, Bob is back in school and says his mother is much better. Oh, it was the supervising nurse who sent her. You and she want to call on the school? Do come. What for? To see what activities we in the school think are needed in this community? You want to start new clubs, and you'd like our suggestions. How grand! Come Thursday, do. I'll arrange with the principals of both my schools. Could you be here at eleven? Then, we'll lunch together and you can go with me to the afternoon school, the girls' school. May I ask the local high-school guidance counselor to lunch with us too and the district supervisor of health counselors? Yes? Fine! By the way, did you see the girls' activity survey for the district? Yorkville civic council secretary, at Lenox Hill House, will gladly send you one. That shows many current needs. Junior League made it for us—very reliable. I'll see you Thursday."

The counselor hung up the telephone. That was the first time in her ten years of New York City school life that an outside agency had planned to call to offer help and to ask direction from the school. She had often called the outside agencies and found them ready and able to respond. But, she wondered to herself, do we, the schools, wear a "know-it-all" attitude, an atmosphere of self-sufficiency? Is that why no one has ever telephoned before to offer help in the community life and to ask our suggestions thereto? Perhaps we are broadening. I hope so; and adding a little humility to our virtues.

Yes, the schools are broadening and recognizing the fact that alone they cannot solve the problem of youth and adults today. For, indeed, it is a problem of adults as well as of youth; parents who are discouraged, defeated, suffering from inferiority complexes in the complex pattern of human problems around them; business men, too crowded with fears to give attention to bungling, young untaught, and impatient employees; teachers and schools, crowded with classes, unable to carry out the theories they know, but cannot take time to apply.

What of the organizations? Are they ready and anxious to help? A month or more ago, a letter went out with the following questions and requests:

1. If there is any coöperation between your organizations and the schools, will you state definitely of what this coöperation consists and how it works?
2. What problems or conditions in the schools or in your organizations seem to interfere with coöperative plans?
3. Give suggestions for better coöperation between the schools and organizations; suggestions as to what organization might do and as to what the schools might do.
4. Do you feel the work you are to do would be helped or hindered by further coöperation with the schools?
5. Give one or two human-interest stories of character building through wider or better coöperation between schools and your organizations.
6. Do you coöperate with any religions or Sunday schools? If so, how?

The letter was sent to many of the character-building agencies which are discussed in the book *Organizations for Youth* by Elizabeth R. Pendry and Hugh Hartshorne.¹ The response to the questionnaire has been almost 100 per cent. The answers have shown a spirit of good fellowship, earnest scholarship, and frankness. It is hoped that this spirit may carry over into this article.

¹ New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1936.

In our community life today, there are available these forty or more national, nondenominational character-building agencies with very good programs and staffs, and sufficient good will to carry their work forward over almost every obstacle, in spite of a lack of adequate funds. There are those well-known societies: Boy Scouts of America, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Woodcraft League of America, Boy Rangers, Boys' Brotherhood Republic, Four-H Club, Junior Achievement, Boys' Clubs of America. There are junior programs in adult service or fraternal groups, in Kiwanis, Rotary, Optimists, Lions, and Orders of De Molay, of The Rainbow, or the Builders. There are organizations working in and through the schools, that is, Junior Red Cross, National Self-Government Committee, Knighthood of Youth, Young Citizens' League, and groups with special interests such as the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, the National Audubon Society, the School Garden Association of America, the Sportsmanship Brotherhood, the National Recreation Association, the Girls' Service League, the Friends of Boys. Finally, there are the interreligious groups, the "Y's," the Big Brothers and Big Sisters' Federation, etc., and there are also, of course, many denominational groups—Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish.

All of the above have character building as their direct or indirect if not their sole aim, and each and every school teacher, counselor, and administrator should enjoy knowing and using their splendid services. But there are also other social institutions whose direct responsibility is character—the churches and the family or home and such civic welfare organizations as have grown up. The school is, of course, organized with the direct purpose of carrying over to the present youth the skills, ideals, and information of the past and the perfecting and adapting of these to useful ends. A concomitant of such a purpose and, it is hoped, a natural result of such education is character building. But character building alone is not the only work assigned to the schools by State laws or by society, al-

though every good teacher will admit that it is never out of his mind a minute in his day, and every school makes many provisions to the end of character building.

What then are the institutions to which the school may turn for coöperation in this forever-in-mind problem of character, and how may they turn?

The local community of Yorkville, a middle East Side section of New York City, affords an example of coöperation which started when the problem of the depression in its first terrible weeks necessitated a rallying of all good forces to organize relief. Today there are some 11 settlements, 23 organizations, 50 churches, 59 schools, 34 hospitals and clinics, and 27 welfare groups, and all the local assemblymen and aldermen working together in a united effort to better a heterogeneous section of some 33 nationalities.

Perhaps the first effort a school may make, therefore, is to gather together at least for a tea-time conference the agencies of the community, or to ask representatives thereof to speak at the teachers' meeting and at the parents' and teachers' meeting, to address the school assembly, or to meet an earnest group of the student organization. Speaking and meeting alone will not suffice, however. There must be organized follow-up on the part of the organizations. In fact, personally, I would prefer to see the organizations take the lead or initiative, and gather the community leaders together, especially to meet the school principals, assistants, and counselors, or activities' directors.

Sheldon and Glueck in *Preventing Crime, A Symposium* attribute much success in crime prevention largely to such coördination of the home, school, church, welfare agencies, recreation programs, police, juvenile court, and correctional institutions. The authors speak of the Los Angeles County Coordinating Council as an outstanding demonstration of the good which may be accomplished by such coöperation. All the youth-aid organizations meet regularly to exchange ideas and plan procedures. As a result there has been

a reduction of the number of juvenile-court wards from 3,991 in 1931 to 1,403 in the first six months of 1934.

In response to the second question of the questionnaire, the suggestion of such reciprocity get-togethers was often mentioned by the organizations, and one suggested that a permanent local council of character-building agencies to coöperate with the local schools should result from these preliminary meetings. It is imperative that some such move be made. The return of liquor to the poorer neighborhood, with its resultant demoralization of the home and of youth, the coming of the depression and its psychoses and neuroses are demanding a definitely planned battle for morality and social welfare. The totalitarianism which has come to other nations with the coming of either communism, naziism, or fascism has taken over to the state, largely, the life of youth to the end of a better disciplined, or better bodied, but perhaps not a better souled youth with a heart bent toward "peace on earth" and the brotherhood of all races, nations, classes, and creeds.

Totalitarianism is certainly not to be desired in America. So long as schools, churches, homes, and club procedures stay separate but function vigorously as *coöperating agencies* democracy's give and take and laws of balance will be preserved. Each and all of these institutions will be safe and secure and youth will be bettered in soul and mind as well as body and ready to live a life of understanding in the fields of the larger brotherhood. He will be ready for that form of self-government which is guided by freedom to hear and will to obey the voice of conscience, independent of dictators' propaganda and crushing political forces.

In answer to question one of our questionnaire, it was found that many organizations mentioned the following as current means of coöperation: the use of school buildings as meeting places or the presence of school administrators in boards of directors or of school teachers as group leaders. Some spoke of annual assemblies in support of their organizations; *i.e.*, Boy Scout Week, Hi Y day, etc., of

speakers sent to special assemblies, of a part in student extracurricular activities, and a few told of individual case referrals.

There are certain legal requirements relative to the equipment of schools, their safety, etc., that make a wide use of school buildings very difficult. Fire laws require that doors and stairways be of such type that they may not be locked from the inside, and this means that often the whole building must be available, if only one room is needed. Darkened rooms and corridors are a moral hazard and temptation to the group that may have come to use only a room or two. Shops and tools, machines and typewriter equipment must be guarded, must be ready for the next day's classes. To open the school building freely to these informally disciplined groups may offer temptations to some of their members.

In many neighborhoods, settlements and church houses are available and should be used to a maximum before the school is utilized. In neighborhoods where there are no settlements, there are usually better type homes in which there are often recreation rooms, and what better place could be found for the local Scout troop? As a Sunday school teacher, I have heard discussed the need for more social life for youth. But as a homemaker, I wonder continually why the homes of the Sunday school children are not offering themselves for club meetings, parties, and social gatherings, which have a rightful place in Sunday school life. I personally believe in the return of more activities to the home, of the revivifying of the home as a place to live and entertain, and I commend to club workers and scout leaders the idea. Very often, a sense of false humility makes the homemaker think his or her home too simple to meet the need. A request from the Scout leader or the club worker would be gratefully received and the hearty coöperation of a parent thereby won. The Four-H procedure of the rural area not only meets in homes but often uses the parents as the leaders. Cub scouting, I understand, has realized this need and uses homes and yards wherever possible. No matter how simple the home, and I have seen many "tenements,"

there's usually a room large enough to take in the scout troop. To help make his home clean and ready for the meeting is often the best skill (and attitude!) a boy or girl can learn. To prepare for and meet the pals of his son or daughter is often a new experience to a parent and one that usually leads on to a better companionship between parent and child. The open house to friends, thus learned at home, may help prevent street-corner or poolroom companionships later on.

I urge, therefore, the wider use of homes and parents as a more important contribution to character building, and, therefore, as a more important matter than the wider use of school buildings and teachers. And may I say that I think this is possible, and base my thinking on ten years of experience in coöperation with the parents of some 20,000 youths in the Yorkville area. But I know the leading into the homes must come from the group leaders themselves. Parents will have to be given confidence and encouragement, as many foreign-born parents do not realize their child's need of the home as a meeting place for friends. Of course I realize that craft and athletic interests may not be satisfied in the homes and a supplementary use of a local settlement, a gymnasium, or a pool and occasional hikes and picnics will be necessary, too.

As to leadership, again may I question the wisdom of teacher leadership for two reasons. Teachers usually need to withdraw from youth groups and to refresh themselves with adults and in new areas. Second, pupils need to find wider loyalties, new inspiration in other persons, entirely separate from the necessarily regimenting procedure of the school atmosphere. Just as a series of books becomes a reading habit and often precludes a child from reading and knowing truly great books and authors with other points of view so a club procedure, teacher led, may preclude the child from finding other great souls with other points of view.

Business and professional clubs of men and women exist almost everywhere and include in their membership those who are lonely

for younger brothers and sisters left behind in the home town. There are people whose lives in business offices and hotel-room homes find no youth contacts at all. These people might welcome the youth leadership opportunities, if solicited by the organizations.

On the other hand, there are groups of young people who have themselves been Camp Fire Girls, Boy or Girl Scouts, "Hi Y's," etc., but who are now looking for upper-teen-age activities, offering them purposeful opportunities, yet good fun. Why not an alumni group for each of the organizations to reabsorb these grown-up Scouts and turn them into youth leaders. Many of these are wandering, ungivingly, through life, looking for happiness. They drop into churches, local political clubs, and finally settle down in some social or bridge club, and years later, if there is a spark of service left, they find a Rotary, Kiwanis, or Lions group.

The church into which they wandered in and out is wondering why it does not interest and hold its young people. Why do not the "Y's," the Big Brothers and Sisters, the Scout committee, or any of the executives of the other forty agencies go to the churches and give to their older young people the challenge of helping with this youth-leadership problem? Young church people often need and desire an opportunity to serve in the community, and training for leadership of Scouts or the "Y's," Boy Rangers, Junior Achievement, or Four H would be welcome and would have real substance in it, far more permanent than the usual seasonal charity activities.

I can think of few more revitalizing experiences for all of our churches than a close purposeful tie-up with any or several of these fine character-building agencies. I have attended some church youth leaders' meetings and I think they would welcome the plan as an answer to a "felt need." There are many church leaders who are looking for valuable projects.

Many of the programs of these agencies would fit in with the purpose of any church, and the training in service to humanity thus afforded their youth would be definitely in accord with the aim of

all churches. Already a few of the organizations have successfully sought church coöperation, but probably none has anywhere near fully developed all the possibilities for both church growth and youths' growth therein.

But how about the schools and coöperation? A wider use of home and parents, a wider use of settlements and community centers, and a wider use of church groups will make available to the schools many more Scout troops, clubs, and older youth groups to which to refer their pupils. I shall never forget the utter hopelessness I felt in a community wherein there were plenty of adequately equipped homes and churches but no Scouts, no clubs for youth. Our Juvenile Aid Department, under Mr. MacDonald's direction, has found it out and, at last, something is being started there in the way of a "center." But why was there need to wait for a "center," with homes, churches, Knights of Columbus hall, Masonic halls, and leisure-time parents and youth looking for something to do?

Probably in the Yorkville area, there are five to ten pupils referred daily to some club or settlement by the counselor of the junior high schools—Nos. 30 and 96, Manhattan, Mr. Albert Loewinthan and Miss Elen Nugent, principals. Several times, annually, leaders from the local settlements or from national groups are invited to speak to the assemblies. The annual report of the Department of Educational and Vocational Guidance and Placement, Mr. Charles Smith, director, shows that 3,488 cases have been referred to 984 agencies by the counselors.

One of these counselors, Miss Anna May Jones of Junior High School No. 81, Manhattan, Miss Anna E. Lawson, principal, wrote of her "Leisure-Time Guidance" in *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* for September 1934. In summary, Miss Jones adds:

Through close coördination with local "Y's," Scouts, settlements, churches, and juvenile clubs, it has been possible to arrange for groups of pupils to form their own club such as an Alumni Club. Pupils in Junior High School No. 81, Manhattan, have been introduced to community

activities through parties, motion pictures, and plays in the various centers with the result that about twenty-five per cent became members later. Special problem cases have been helped through coördination of school and community recreational centers. Speakers from such centers have won the interest of pupils especially when exhibits of the activities were displayed in assemblies followed by individual interviews with the pupils most interested in participating as members. Teachers have coöperated whole-heartedly in the various phases of the leisure-time education and guidance program, observing changed attitudes, new interests, and better work habits in class.

There could be an exchange of credit for work done in schools and in clubs. One girl in a club developed a wild-flower hobby, the painting of pictures of them, and finally became especially interested in mushrooms. At graduation time, she plans to leave to her school a valuable collection. Many organizations include in their programs much that could be used to the child's credit in his school and would be welcome if brought to the school's attention by the club leader.

Vocational interests may be explored in clubs. Nautically minded truants are referred to the Sea Scouts, later to the Seamen's Institute, where Captain Huntington so impresses them with the need for arithmetic and algebra in navigation science that they return to school with renewed interest. The result of these excellent contacts has led the counselor to urge that a simple seamanship training program be made available to boys, and I understand such a plan is now being worked out.

Individual club referrals of problem cases of socially deprived or misdirected youth are a part of the daily work of all counselors and teachers. But it is to be admitted that many teachers do not know whether their referrals reach the group or remain and progress therein. A follow-up on the part of the teacher or counselor of some 3,000 pupils is often impossible. Hence a return card, a follow-up on the part of the Scout leader, the club director, etc., would encourage such referrals and often would bring to the school a greater understanding of the good work being done for youth.

The organizations should be led to realize that the schools do desire to coöperate but often do not know which way to turn, and the crowded classroom and school program deter the teacher, counselor, or administrator from doing many things he thinks of for Johnny as he tries to close his eyes at night. I suggest, therefore, that youth leaders call as often as possible at the school, that they be on the mailing lists for notices of parents' meetings, of commencement, of plays, or festivals that they might offer their members in that school as helpers in some activities or send evidence of their members' talents as contributions to some exhibit or festival. May I also suggest that school assembly time may not permit each organization alone to give an assembly period and that, therefore, several organizations or settlements plan jointly to bring their leaders to an assembly, if possible supplementing one another's interest areas.

Wherever I have served in the schools of the country, I have been delightfully surprised at the careful, loving, kindly attitude of administrators and teachers. I think few people realize all the loving kindness and sincere, earnest work for their pupils which the schools manifest. I recommend to all leaders that they become well acquainted with the schools, the administrators, and teachers, so as to help the schools understand their pupils from the point of contact of the club worker, and likewise to help the little club member understand his school better.

Schools sometimes become discouraged in referring cases to certain agencies because there seems to be a great delay in that agency's response. I presume there are many reasons for this delay, but meanwhile the youth is a living, acting, human being and things are happening in his life which sometimes result in tragedy while the school awaits the agency's advice or plans.

Probably one of the greatest hindrances to coöperative activity for youth is due to the fact that certain welfare agencies refuse to take a case because another agency has previously had it, even when the parents, the school, or the church all wish to call into the case the

new agency to help solve the problem. I can thoroughly appreciate the need to avoid duplication of work by various agencies, but if one of these institutions thinks a new agency could be more effective in establishing rapport perhaps their understanding of the case should be seriously considered.

However, the greatest need today is for lay interest in support of and coöperation with the good work of all these institutions, agencies, settlements, clubs, etc. One of our most successful and worthwhile New York City programs for youth is stopping this month for lack of \$10.00 a week to keep it going. It has been helping weekly an average of 900 boys and girls of junior- and senior-high-school age and has had the earnest coöperation and appreciation of the schools. It was hoped some club or group of individuals would give the little bit necessary.

Chambers of commerce, leagues of women voters, civic-welfare clubs, business and professional clubs exist everywhere. Many of these are seeking to do good and could give funds to worthy agencies and programs. But, in addition, they may contain young people who would make excellent Scout leaders, Big Brothers and Big Sisters, Sea Scout, Cub, or Ranger leaders, etc. Two busy people sharing a Scout troop would need to give but little time actually, and yet what joy they would find as well as give in that time.

Then how about an organization of these volunteer workers, similar to the British "Toc H," wherein an exchange of fellowship, ideas, and good fun would make the experiences of doing good for others rebound as a joyful source of good friends and good times for the leaders themselves?

As one who constantly uses the clubs, the settlements, the churches, and the agencies in the community, I am deeply grateful to all for their earnest workers. I appreciate the well-thought-out programs and procedures offered our youth, and I hope that this article may give these workers inspiration and lead them on to further coöperative activities and bring to them the appreciation and support in their good work which they so well deserve.

HOW SCHOOLS BUILD CHARACTER

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A surgeon interested in the advancement of medical science was intent upon his examination of a very interesting "case." He was completing his diagnosis preliminary to a serious operation. As the examination and diagnosis proceeded and the surgeon became less aware of the patient and more and more fascinated by his problem, the patient began to be disturbed. Finally the patient objected to the treatment received, whereupon the surgeon replied in effect, "I am not interested in you, but I am interested in your disease."

And so it is all too frequently in the typical school and home. We, as teachers, are all too interested in the subjects we are teaching. Likewise, as parents, we are too prone to instill in the lives of our children certain concepts and ways of behavior well established in our own make-up. Consciously or unconsciously we are making of the lives of our children but lengthened shadows of our own selves. Unfortunately such situations are too typical of our inadequate understanding and respect for the total life and growth of the individual child. We have as yet much to learn in this regard.

Respect for child life implies a deeply appreciative and intelligent understanding of the child, his ideas, desires, interests, and abilities. Such understanding comes only from careful observation, study, and guidance. Our first and last function as teachers is not the organization of dissemination of knowledges, classified into subject fields, nor is it the establishment and fixation of academic skills in our pupils, but rather is it continuous and never-ceasing *child study*. The most wonderful thing in all the world is the secret and hidden beauty in each child personality. It is the thing that makes each child a distinctive being. We must seek to find and develop that secret beauty in each and every life in our care. As teachers, this is our first and last charge.

Fortunately we do see about us many fellow teachers who seem keenly aware of the fact that their task is one of directing and guiding the activities of learning and growing children, and that it is not one of teaching subjects or courses of study. In their continuous study and analysis of children they approach the all-round growth idea. Said Henry Ward Beecher:

Education is the knowledge of how to use the whole of one's self. Men are often like knives with many blades; they know how to open one and only one; all the rest are buried in the handle and they are no better than they would have been if the knife had been made with but one blade. Many men use but one or two faculties out of the score with which they are endowed. A man is educated who knows how to make a tool of every faculty, how to open it, how to keep it sharp, learning to apply it to all practical purposes.

Personality has to do with the degree of integration of a self-conscious organism which has the capacity for knowledge, love, and purpose. Thus personality includes character. Popularly, character is regarded mostly in a religious or moral sense. In this sense one's character is the total resultant at any moment of the individual's attitudes and acts which may be labeled either good or bad. His ethically neutral attitudes and acts do not enter the picture. This concept is not sufficiently inclusive. The term "character" is also used to denote occupational qualifications, one's rating in certain fields of endeavor, for example, one's character as a lawyer or as a realtor, as well as the possession of odd and generally humorous qualities, as "He's quite a character." Scientifically there is still lack of agreement as to the proper connotation of the word. Distinguished educators do not agree on the fundamental elements of character. Confusion will be less at least if we reserve the word not only for religious and moral traits but also for traits that indicate a person's attitude toward himself, his work, his fellows. In short it may be thought of as a quality and an index of social behavior. Character is growing when the child becomes increasingly aware (con-

scious) of the social significance of his own acts. This awareness is quite different from any self-consciousness of one's own goodness or badness.

Character education is primarily unconscious education. This does not mean purely accidental education, nor does it imply merely incidental education. Clearly, better thinking is pulling away from the formal direct method of instruction. Rather, emphasis is placed upon analyzing desirable situations for character development and surrounding children with such situations. The emotional, as well as the intellectual, factor is being recognized as of paramount importance. Morality is dependent upon the quality, not the quantity, of education.

The understructure of character building then is a matter of proper habit formation. Conduct that labels our character is largely an automatic functioning. For example, just as you unconsciously swerve to the right, apply the brakes, or feed more gas as you worm your way through heavy traffic, so you must be ready to do the thousand and one things that stamp you as well-bred, moral, virtuous, law-abiding. Here as elsewhere the thought process must be reserved for the exceptional occasion—the challenge extraordinary.

With the understructure well on its way, a carefully planned program of character education leans heavily on two things. First, a live program of school life activities in which practice of desired habits is afforded. School life activities are those pupil experiences in which assuming responsibility, making decisions, directing activity, and securing pleasure, by and for the children, are of major importance. Second, either within or without the program of school life activities, carefully planned group discussions and other media through which the child's ability to reason and think things through are established. Two fine bases for group discussions are to be found in such biographical treatments as that provided by Vernon Jones in his little volume *What Would You Have Done?* and in crucial school episodes as they arise from time to time.

Plenty of character problems arise in school life regardless of the

type of community served by the school. Diary data in the Denver Survey revealed "a startling similarity in schools representing the two extremes of society." So marked was this similarity that Miss Anderson of Denver tells us that "... a character-education program may be essentially the same for the child of Judy O'Grady and the son of the Colonel's Lady."

An invaluable little book for teachers interested in trying out this discussion idea is Amelia McLester's *The Development of Character Traits in Young Children*, published by Scribner's a few years ago. For three years Miss McLester conducted discussions with primary-school children for the purpose of developing desirable traits of character. The third year she recorded the topics and responses of children of many of these discussion periods, which are given in detail in her book. "Every discussion had its starting point in some incident which occurred in the association of the children with each other, or was an outgrowth of some specific situation in the school." For example, on the playground children were snatching one another's hats and throwing them about. They were asked not to play in this way. When they returned indoors it was discussed. Another discussion centered around Nell's complaint that the children would not play with her. (She was disagreeable in her play.) Miss McLester's children were never encouraged to watch themselves grow in character, their attention always being directed to the welfare of other people. Character education was never mentioned. Incidents suggestive of outcomes that are at least in considerable part the result of this program are as follows:

1. Joe, in an effort to post something on the bulletin board, dropped a thumbtack on the floor. Rachel saw him looking for it. She helped him search for a while and then said, "I'll get you another one out of the cupboard."
2. One day at lunch there was not enough cocoa to go around. Three children volunteered to give up their share. (Every child in the room looked forward to the day when cocoa was served.)
3. Ned was weaving a rug on a loom he had made. When the rug was

almost finished the loom came to pieces at one end. Janet saw the trouble he was having and offered to help him mend it. The two working together were able to repair it.

4. As we sat down for our reading circle Julien said, "Good night! What a little circle this is. We ought to make it big enough for the other children to get in. . . ."

This method of character education is not what is referred to as the direct method. Yet you can see wherein it is premeditated by the teacher. Perhaps it illustrates an informal direct method. It does not harp on character traits as such. It does not fix a certain period in the day for "character education." The whole day, month, and year is for character building. However, there come periods in the progress of an activity, whether in the curriculum or in the general life of the school, when it is advisable to stop to contemplate and reason about the experience that has been developed, and perhaps for the purpose of forming some tentative generalizations for future procedures. When this contemplation takes place we find the core of our character curriculum in operation.

In addition to group discussions of right and wrong factors in school episodes and in episodes in the lives of great men and women, other commendable procedures in a character-education program might include: teacher records and study of individual children, their home environment, etc. (*see* Germane and Germane's treatment of the case-study method in their book on *Character Education*); teacher example rather than precept (in the last analysis the teacher *is* the character curriculum); rich appreciation experiences in music, art, sculpture, literature, nature; opportunity for children to give to others (actual sacrifices); sharing responsibility in the schoolroom and in the school as a whole, and in other school life activities such as clubs, excursions, publications, and purely social activities. Character thrives best, other things being equal, in social institutions where control is self-imposed rather than superimposed.

Questionable procedures and those to be condemned usually

make use of rewards, loyalty pledges, codes, and the like. They tend to cause children to start thinking about themselves, their virtues, and shortcomings. Sometimes it may be necessary to resort to rewards, such as badges, buttons, ribbons, blackboard stars, and honor rolls. But they usually result in "piled-up virtues" to be pinned on one's self, a sort of "Christmas tree morality." Character does not result from extraneous control. It is not difficult to see how essential it is to reduce this type of thing to a minimum, and early to shift interest from badges and stars to the rights of other people.

Behavior problems among children are to be explained in terms of the discrepancies, or perhaps better said, conflicts between the individual's capacities to behave, or again better said, the discrepancies between the individual's actual behavior and the requirements for behavior that are imposed upon him by social forces. "Problem children" tend to evade social requirements either through techniques of withdrawal as in the case of introverts, or through techniques of attack as in the case of extroverts. For example, where the withdrawal technique of fearfulness is used by children to evade behavior requirements imposed upon them by social forces other children tend toward temper tantrums. Some children resort to sulkiness, while others try out disobedience. Where the introvert develops and relies upon shyness, the extrovert responds through overt aggressiveness.

What should be our attitude as parents and teachers toward such problem children and their obvious maladjustment to behavior situations? Insofar as attitudes toward behavior problems of children are personal in character and are responses in kind to the behavior which they seek to remedy, indulgence in them, though gratifying to the adult, is a detriment to the child. For example, when in our treatment of "attacking behavior" we counter with corporal punishment, the result is often stimulation to further misbehavior, and the underlying difficulty of adjustment is increased. When motives of any behavior are truly appreciated the urge of punishing the "bad"

child disappears. *The whole value of punishment depends on its objective employment.* Children are the first to distinguish punishment administered with personal feeling from that intelligently directed. Thorndike tells us that punishment is likely to fail of its purpose nine times out of ten, whereas recognition for good behavior has a salutary effect nine times in ten.

The child's attitudes, ideals, and interests far surpass in importance his knowledges and skills as the basic objectives for which we are striving in our program of home and school education. Probably the basic principle in the establishment of the most desired attitudes, ideals, and interests which go to make up a child's character is that we must train the child with one specific end in view; namely, train him for independence, self-dependence. The "possessive" parent, and likewise the less frequently found "possessive" teacher, is one of the most dangerous factors in a program of character formation and development. If we can but learn to place responsibilities on the child in the home, establish democratic family councils in which children play an important role, the most important step in the proper development of independence and the right kind of self-dependence has been taken. In properly functioning democratically established family councils, the child's voice is heard on important family affairs. It may be in regard to such matters as the child's wisdom in choosing friends, scheduling dish washing, or managing the family budget.

Similarly in school can we never hope to develop the child's social responsibilities unless we place in him a distinct responsibility for social and political welfare within the school. This means nothing short of establishing functioning school democracies in which children coöperate actively with the teachers in the administration of the school. Where school councils have been established and children become accustomed to performing their citizenship responsibilities, there is little new and strange in the experience for them later in life when they are obliged to assume similar responsibilities.

Political corruption, racketeering, kidnaping, and other types of crime waves will not disappear until the average citizen is thus made qualified to function.

Finally, one last word with regard to an adequate program of character building. It has to do again with the child-adult relationship. Some one has said that an abstract idea is like an empty picture frame. Before it can become beautiful it must be impersonated in the life of an individual. Beauty comes only in placing a living picture (the parent, the teacher) in the empty picture frame. We must live the better qualities that we hope to see developed in our children. By eliminating the great wide no man's land between the parent and child, the teacher and pupil (and should we add, the supervisor and teacher?), the child should be able to see clearly in us the great objectives that are consciously being sought in our program of education for life in the home and school.

The fullest respect for child life comes when intelligent guidance and respect permeates all we do and say. Couple with this the skill and knowledge implied in the foregoing discussion, and our program of character development will bear fruit. When love and skill work together, expect a masterpiece!

SOCIOLOGICAL TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL EDUCATION

CHARLES C. PETERS

Pennsylvania State College

At its Christmas meeting in Chicago, December 29, 1936, the American Sociological Society adopted the following report made by a committee consisting of L. L. Bernard, F. S. Chapin, George S. Counts, Ellsworth Faris, Walter C. Reckless, and Charles C. Peters, chairman.

Exchange of ideas between our committee and representative leaders in public-school education has revealed a strong sense of need on the part of the latter for services they believe sociologists could render them. The desire of both sociologists and public-school educators to coöperate in a service that would be beneficial to both, as well as to society at large, needs only some concrete implementation in order to make it effective. As apparently feasible means of achieving this end, your committee makes the following recommendations:

1. That sociologists conduct researches on problems of importance in education. A survey of completed and published research in educational sociology has been made by a committee of the American Educational Research Association under the chairmanship of the chairman of this committee, which survey will be published as the February number of the *Review of Educational Research*. This lists more than six hundred studies, many of them scientific researches of a very high order of excellence. But there still remain many gaps to be filled, and the aid of sociologists who have a special interest in this field and special competency in scientific research would be welcomed in the attempt to close some of these gaps.

2. That, where this has not already been done, a course, or a number of courses, be set up on the graduate level especially adapted to

the needs of persons in training for school superintendencies, principalships, directors of educational research, and other phases of leadership in the public-school system. Since many of these persons can take only a single graduate course in sociology, we recommend the construction or adaptation of a three-to six-credit course embracing fundamental consideration of as many matters basic to the sociological orientation of educational leaders as time will permit. Often the course in social psychology can be most readily adapted to this purpose. For those who can take more than this one course there should be further offerings on such themes as the family, social control, community organization, criminology, etc.

3. If such courses are to be maximally useful, sociologists who plan and administer them must keep clearly in mind their objectives. Particularly, they must distinguish between the objectives of civic and liberal education on the one hand and those of professional education on the other. It must be remembered that professional education is vocational education. Such vocational professional education should be guided by realistic job analysis of the tasks educational leaders are called upon to perform in their school relations, and its objectives should be specific preparednesses to perform effectively the several elements of the job revealed by the job analysis. If liberal education motifs are to play a part they should be definitely recognized and avowed as such, not sold to prospective members of the class as professional education.

4. We express the conviction that all persons in training for teaching should have included in their undergraduate programs at least one substantial general course in sociology, because as leaders of thought they cannot escape the necessity of interpreting such social phenomena as the mores, social control, social change, crowd behavior, public opinion, and the other group phenomena with which sociology undertakes to deal. Prospective teachers need this training in common with all other intelligent members of society in this period of social reconstruction, and, in our opinion, no particularly

different course is needed by prospective teachers from that needed by all other intelligent members of society.

5. We recommend that the term "educational sociology" be employed to designate a *field* of study rather than a single *course*, and that under it more specific titles be used, as: sociology for teachers, sociology of education, social foundations of the school curriculum, nonschool educational agencies, school discipline, etc. Which of these courses jointly constituting the field of educational sociology should be taught in departments of education and which in departments of sociology depends upon the particular training and interests of the personnel in the local university. Certainly no one who is not thoroughly trained in sociology should presume to teach one of these courses that is primarily sociological in nature, nor should any one who is not thoroughly trained in education presume to teach those which are primarily pedagogical in emphasis.

6. We believe that the inclusion of sociology in the program of training for teachers and educational executives does not necessarily call for change in the certification laws. In both the undergraduate and the graduate program there remains in all States of the Union room enough beyond the legal requirements of certification for the inclusion of sociological training if those who make the local program are convinced that it is worth while. However, this may require replacement of some courses now prescribed by the local authorities but not included within the legal requirements for teachers' certificates.

7. As a technique for getting coöperative action between educationalists and sociologists, we urge a friendly *rapprochement* in particular universities. In those institutions in which there are sociologists who are especially willing and competent to offer courses adapted to the professional training of educational leaders, we suggest that such willingness be made known to the dean of the school of education, and that courses be developed and forged into shape experimentally by the free matching of ideas from both sides. As

such courses prove themselves useful on particular campuses, it may reasonably be expected that the pattern will spread to other institutions.

8. The above paragraphs relate to sociological training for school executives and teachers of other subjects than the social sciences. The committee has taken cognizance of the trend in America to require, for purposes of certification, that persons who are to teach social studies in the high schools shall have had a substantial major or minor in college in this field. We commend this tendency, and urge its extension to all states that have not yet adopted this requirement. But we call attention to the fact that, since the social sciences constitute a very broad field and a properly equipped person for teaching any one of them should have had some training in all of them, a satisfactory major for certification in the social sciences should be larger than that set for some other academic fields.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Because of the pertinence of the following material to the present issue of THE JOURNAL, the regular research material is being omitted.

YOUTH VENTURES

SYLVIA NEWBURGER, *Chairman*

International Student Conference on Crime Prevention

Student delegates from American universities, representatives of foreign universities, and authorities on criminology and related fields participated in an International Student Conference on Crime Prevention held in the Town Hall, New York City, on December 18, 1936, and sponsored by the Undergraduate Student Council of the New York University School of Education.

The conference was designed to serve as the basis of a nation-wide student project by integrating approaches to an understanding of the problem of delinquency and crime and providing a point of departure for student leaders in possibilities for local action.

At present college students in over half the States in the country are organizing groups to secure concerted action by careful methods of procedure in establishing permanent projects and regional conferences, after surveying community resources, assets, and liabilities. The projects, immediate and long time, will be conducted by students with the sponsorship of colleges, social agencies, parent-teacher associations, educational and civic organizations in their respective communities. The student leaders will, in addition, volunteer aid to those organizations which seem to be carrying on the most effective programs with children in the delinquency areas.

In the experts' panel on "Basic Approaches to the Problems of the Prevention of Delinquency," Dr. Bruce Robinson, director of the Department of Child Guidance, Newark, New Jersey, who discussed contributions of psychiatry, showed its importance not only in treating personality difficulties, but in their prevention by more attention to personality development through child training in the home, school, and other groups.

In discussing contributions of sociology, Dr. Frederic M. Thrasher,

associate professor of education, New York University School of Education, viewed the contribution of sociology as the synthetic approach which does not minimize the importance of individual frustration, but places particular emphasis upon the social and cultural explanation of delinquency. "In a delinquent area, the problem would be to redeem the group rather than have the families of all delinquents move out of the neighborhood. Without a demoralizing social environment, even children who are frustrated would not be likely to turn to delinquency because of patterns of prestige."

In his discussion of contributions of roentgenology, Dr. J. Townsend Travers, director of the X-Ray Division of Manhattan State Hospital, stressed the necessity for a complete X-ray examination of the delinquent before evolving diagnosis in order to ascertain possible physical defects influencing behavior, and discussed encephalography, a special air study of the brain which discloses brain shrinkage causing antisocial behavior.

Dr. Shailer U. Lawton, F.A.C.P., director, Medical Department, House of Detention, New York City, in considering contributions of endocrinology in the prevention of delinquency stated that delinquency is largely socio-economic. "Its remedy lies in the direction of applied sociology, education, and economic security. Some cases are, of course, psychopathic, endocrine, and genetic. These, however, are in last analysis in the minority, since most 'glandular' patients never become legally delinquent. Endocrine therapy, therefore, can help in the case of delinquency only in the exceptional instance. The remedy for delinquent behavior does not lie in 'gland pills' nor is it removable by means of the surgeon's knife."

In introducing the experts' panel on "Organizing to Prevent Delinquency," Dr. John Slawson, executive director, Jewish Board of Guardians, stated that crime has largely passed the realm of the psychiatrist, educator, and social worker, and is now the concern of the entire community and the entire social structure, having passed the stage of mere sensationalism. Dr. Slawson noted that college groups should become concerned with crime which is a problem of youth itself, and in assuming positions of leadership in their communities should be responsible for helping to organize community forces for prevention.

Dr. William E. Grady, associate superintendent of schools, New York City, in discussing the school and delinquency prevention showed that schools are approaching the problem when each child is conceived as a

personality in a vitalized curriculum, when an extension of schooling is provided from babyhood to adulthood, and when school is open not merely from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. "If we concentrated our attention not on the death chair, but on the chair in the classroom, or even on the high chair, there would be greater hope for salvaging. . . ."

In discussing private agencies and delinquency prevention Dr. Leonard W. Mayo, assistant executive director, Welfare Council, New York City, stressed the fact that primary responsibility plus teamwork responsibility, with hard work and follow-up, spells the only kind of sound, constructive, fundamental basis for delinquency and crime prevention.

Dr. Lloyd N. Yepsen, director, Division of Classification and Parole, Department of Institutions and Agencies, Trenton, New Jersey, in evaluating the role of governmental agencies in crime prevention pointed out that governmental agencies are developing institutions to supply individual needs for particular kinds of individuals, realizing that differences exist among these deviates. "The next quarter of a century will see this work extended on the basis that has been established and is known to be good."

Dr. Margaret Fries, pediatrician, New York University College of Medicine, in discussing the home and delinquency prevention expressed the opinion that emotional maladjustment is the "germ" of delinquency, while poor sociological conditions, ill health, mental deficiency, etc., are only contributing factors . . . children's inner conflicts can be traced to the parents' own emotional adjustment."

Miss Edith Rockwood, associate in child welfare, Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, in discussing child-welfare service, considered the Federal grants within the last year to the States under the Social Security Act for the purpose of developing local child-welfare services in a steadily increasing number of local communities. An experimental study in methods of community organization for the early treatment of juvenile delinquency to cover a three-year period is being made by the United States Children's Bureau in St. Paul, Minnesota, in cooperation with local agencies. A previous demonstration study in the treatment and prevention of delinquency was carried on by the Children's Bureau and cooperating groups in Chicago from 1933 to 1935. The Bureau had for some years been publishing *Juvenile Court Statistics* including delinquency cases which reveal trends.

Dr. Charles Chute, executive director, National Probation Association,

in discussing community coordination and prevention of delinquency, stressed the fact that delinquency is a community problem and as such can best be handled by councils representing all agencies concerned, to compare notes and work together efficiently.

Dr. Paul V. West, professor of education, New York University School of Education, stated that "The crime problem is fundamentally a psychological one—having to do with motive forces that produce good or bad conduct. To solve it, we must master the techniques by which proper social attitudes, chief of which is a sense of social responsibility, may be developed. Social agencies have failed to permeate our civilization with right attitudes. . . . Let these agencies cooperate intelligently and the problem will be largely solved."

Dr. Frank Astor, liaison officer between the National Child Welfare Association and Bureau of Child Guidance, stressed the fact that youth should attempt to build a better public opinion as to the approaches and programs of crime prevention.

Dr. Harry Shulman, attending psychologist, Post Graduate Hospital, suggested that the direction in which to work might be better understood if more was known about actual problems and what is being done by various agencies.

Mr. Spencer Miller, Jr., director, Workers' Education Bureau of America, and Miss Stella A. Miner, director, Girls' Service League of America, made valuable contributions.

In his discussion of popular fallacies in crime prevention, Dr. Justin Miller, chairman, United States Attorney-General's Advisory Committee on Crime, made the interesting comment that it is not merely adult criminals who have records of juvenile delinquency, but all adults. "The important consideration lies in the fact that the delinquencies of some children are made the basis for education and orientation in the world about them; while in the case of others delinquency becomes the basis of repeated violations of the social code of conduct and leads on to more serious types of delinquency in adult life. . . . We have had such a wealth of human material to work with in this country that the many who have survived these methods of education have seemed to justify our educational procedures, especially as the process of justification was indulged in by those whose superiority was established as a result of such educational methods." Dr. Miller discussed "Going to College—A Method of Crime Prevention" as his contribution in the evening session.

Mr. Sanford Bates, director, Federal Bureau of Prisons, in discussing

social treatment of delinquents as crime prevention noted that surveys are discouraging and that, although there are conflicts of opinions, thinking on the matter should be oriented. He further stated that punishment looks behind, and prevention, which looks ahead and means preparation, is the focal point of action. "The kind of social treatment which will lead to protection and have a disciplinary effect must be of a constructive nature. . . . The elements of social treatment must be productive constructive work." Mr. Bates suggested that society's attitudes are a significant part of crime prevention.

In discussing adolescent delinquents Judge Anna M. Kross of New York City stated that our entire law is antiquated and should be revised. "The adolescent delinquent who comes into the court is ground out, in 99 per cent of the cases, a full-fledged criminal. The reformatories are colleges of crime. Those things have occurred because from the beginning in the juvenile court the antisocial phase is delinquency, rather than crime, and there have not been provided the necessary weapons of social, medical, and scientific approaches to really check the juvenile delinquent there . . . in 99 out of 100 cases, the delinquent is underprivileged. . . . It is society that is really the criminal today in our country. . . . The juvenile delinquent is a human being, and must be regarded as such, and the law does not take this into consideration."

The marked tendency in Canada now toward coöperation between theory and practice, with the resultant evaluation, more carefully checked experimentation, and increasing community consciousness, was pointed out by Mr. Jack Anguish, student representative of the University of Toronto, Canada.

In the report considering prevention of juvenile delinquency in France, submitted by the University of Paris, Mlle. E. de Lagrange and Mr. A. Coste-Floret discussed the decree of May 22, 1936, which established at the Ministry of Justice a "Conseil Supérieur de Prophylaxie," composed of scientists, medical men, jurists, magistrates, and high functionaries, to suggest appropriate measures and methods for progress in crime prevention. The French Government has appointed a "Subsecretary of State for Childhood" who is charged with effective organization in preventing juvenile delinquency. It was stated that French public opinion ardently desires a total program which will be possible with the return of better economic conditions.

In the report submitted from the Academy of Abo, Finland, by Miss

Gunvor Soderling, under the supervision of Dr. Edward Westermarck, it was stated that child protection in Finland advanced considerably after the war in 1918. The importance of family and home in the development and education of children is being increasingly emphasized there.

Tracing the efforts of Belgium toward prevention of delinquency, Mr. Charley del Marmal, student representative of the University of Liège, Belgium, pointed out that his country was one of the first in Europe to have recognized the necessity for child protection. The Child Protection Act, passed in 1912, provided for special children's courts with facilities for case studies and supervision.

In the report of Mr. Henry Halvorsen of the University of Oslo, Norway, emphasis was placed on the necessity for the study of the physical and mental constitution of the individual as a means of prevention.

The report submitted from the University of Lwow, Poland, by Mr. Ludwik Jarzykowski and Mr. Tadevsz Sokotowski, supervised by Dr. Juljusz Makarewicz, traced the basis of the Polish public guardianship of minors decree "in satisfying by public means the vital needs of those, who . . . are not able to do this for themselves, and in preventing the arising of such a situation." The law considers the vital needs of minors as moral, religious, mental, and physical in the necessary preparation for their future self-supporting careers.

The report submitted from the University of London by Miss Mary L. Worth, supervised by Dr. Hermann Mannheim and S. Clement Brown, mentioned progressive educational practices, child-guidance clinics coöperating with courts, special youth hostels, the Institute for the Scientific Treatment of Delinquency which promotes causation research and educational work, the National Institute of Industrial Psychology which is doing pioneer work in vocational guidance, and concern with economic and social conditions as some of the phases of the prevention of delinquency in England.

In the address by Mr. Fritz Zeiler, student representative of the University of Amsterdam, the Netherlands, it was stated that the National Association for Child Protection, "Pro Juventute," organized in 1896 gave impetus to modern child legislation in the Netherlands in 1901 which included child-welfare boards acting as a link between governmental and private institutions. Private institutions have a claim to government subsidy if their object is child protection. A compulsory school-attendance law, requiring schooling from six to thirteen years of age, was enacted

the beginning of the century. Mr. Zeiler stated that child protection in the Netherlands has become a matter of social concern.

In the report submitted from the University of Brussels, Belgium, by Mr. Marcel Verschelden under the supervision of Dr. Leon Cornil, it was stated that the first Bureau of Social Readjustment in Belgium, created in Brussels in 1922 and since initiated in other principal cities, had as its purpose the extension of service and coördination of efforts of the departments of public welfare in various townships—a private enterprise, non-profit seeking, of semi-official nature, with its membership for the most part consisting of officers in social-welfare organizations. It is divided into the Divisions of Destitution-Vagrancy, Delinquency, Maladjusted Youth, and Mental Deficients.

Mr. Amor Bavaj, student representative of the Royal University of Rome, Italy, discussed the National Service for Maternity and Child Welfare, the decree of July 20, 1934, emphasizing centers of observation affiliated with courts for minors, scientifically to study and readjust each delinquent . . . "the reënforcement of family life, the setting up of social justice among the various classes . . . by means of a more equitable distribution of wealth, reconstruction of the educational system which tries to spread a formative culture to the greatest extent, improvement of leisure time for the populace . . ." as influences for the prevention of juvenile delinquency in Italy.

In the report submitted from the University of Vienna, Austria, by Miss Ilse Lukas under the supervision of Dr. Roland Grassberger, Public Boards for Youth Welfare, child-protection measures, house-building policies in slum areas, school hygiene programs, guidance clinics, laws protecting juveniles against bad influences—as punishment for any one selling alcoholic drinks, or distributing indecent literature to children under sixteen years of age, permitting their attendance at motion pictures other than ones distinctly authorized as suitable, employing children for hawking, selling newspapers, etc., allowing juveniles under sixteen to loiter about the streets after nightfall, to visit restaurants or cabarets without adult supervision, or to smoke or play cards in public places—were discussed as phases of Austria's program of social welfare.

The board of directors of this project includes the following students: Mildred Buchwalder, Edwin Giventer, Florence Hamm, Edward Norris, Adele Rapp, Harry Slone, Daniel Strelnick, Walter Wilson, Otilie Hubert, secretary, and the writer as chairman. Faculty advisers: Dr. Julius

Yourman, chairman, Dr. Francis J. Brown, Miss Rhea K. Boardman, Dr. Frederic M. Thrasher, Professor Harvey W. Zorbaugh, and Dr. Mary S. Callcott, special adviser.

College students interested in social welfare have a definite responsibility in planning and working together. With a setup permanently established, active participation in welfare work and training in leadership should become an important factor of sociology courses. Success in the project depends upon the kind of leadership and sponsorship each individual group will have.

This is the beginning. From this beginning will grow a student consciousness that will evince itself in practical results, for it will be led by serious students with faith in people and ideals, and will be ripened by earnestness.

Generation after generation, youth dreams of helping cut through traditional apathy—apathy which is characterized by the conspicuous absence of interest from those affected, and from those so confined in their outlook as to be sheathed against the wider implications of basic social problems.

When youth ventures, precedent fades to the point where the past contributes and the future promises the effective solution of present problems.

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The readers of THE JOURNAL will be interested to know that a thoroughgoing summary of research in educational sociology was published as the February number of the *Review of Educational Research*, the official organ of the American Educational Research Association. This is a hundred-page book with eight chapters, the contributors being David Snedden, Earl Rugg, Walter C. Reckless, Julian Butterworth, Douglas States, and Charles C. Peters, chairman of the committee. The *Review of Educational Research* is now in its seventh year. Each number is devoted to one particular phase of education and the cycles recur about every two or three years. This is the first time, however, that educational sociology has entered the cycle and the committee, which is headed by Frank M. Freeman, has decided to devote a number in each cycle to the subject of educational sociology.

BOOK REVIEWS

Character and Citizenship Training in the Public School, by VERNON JONES. Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press, 1936, 404 pages.

Professor Jones reports the findings of a carefully planned and acceptably executed experiment in the field of character education. Three methods of building character were compared in properly controlled situations; namely, the first-hand-experiencing method, the discussion method, and the first-hand-experiencing-plus-discussion method.

Among the chief conclusions of the experimenter are: (1) Demonstrable improvement in character and citizenship of children is possible through planned school instruction. (2) The most successful teaching method is the experiencing-plus-discussion method. (3) The provision of "emotional toning" to learning in the field of character and citizenship is essential. Desirable reactions of the learner must be associated with exhilarating satisfaction if he will seek opportunities of practising similar behavior in other situations. (4) The effectiveness of the various teaching methods differed quite a little from teacher to teacher.

The author is to be commended for the meticulous care with which the experiment is set up and conducted and for the cautious manner in which he draws his conclusions.

Untying Apron Strings, by HELEN GIBSON HOGUE. Chicago, Ill.: Character Associates, Inc., 1936, 125 pages.

This little volume will be invaluable to parents and teachers as an aid in better understanding the attitudes of children as well as their own inadequacies as adults in assisting the young to a more stable emotional life. In the direct approach used by the author the reader is led to face and analyze his own childhood emotional patterns. He is reawakened, so to speak, to the fact that all of us are governed in large measure by our childhood emotional experiences.

Not written for the expert in mental hygiene, this book does give the layman the elementary "common sense" of what the mental hygienist has to offer. While it does not emphasize techniques for diagnosis and treatment of specific behavior problems, it does reveal what may be accomplished through sympathetic and practical understanding of relationships and attitudes in the personality development of a child. The

understanding approach of the author in itself illustrates what is meant by respect for personality, which in turn is the basis for any successful program of character development.

Benes, Statesman of Central Europe, by PIERRE CRABITES. New York: Coward-McCann, 1936, ix + 293 pages.

The past decade has seen a continuously increasing body of literature critically denouncing democratic principles. In interesting contrast to the many volumes on dictators is this excellent analysis of this pacifist, democratic leader of Central Europe—the newly elected president of Czechoslovakia. No man alive today has given more intelligent thought to the meaning of democracy; no man has had more practical experience in translating it into a national way of life. At a time when democracy is subject to so much questioning in America this book should be particularly significant for Americans.

The Crisis of the Middle Class, by LEWIS COREY. New York: Covici, Friede, Inc., 1935, ix + 379 pages.

This book traces the changes of the middle class in the United States from propertied interests aligned with capitalism to a property-less class aligned against capitalism. As in his previous books, the author laboriously analyzes the economic changes and presents a forceful case for the necessity of an economic readjustment in the United States.

American Neutrality, 1914-1917, by CHARLES SEYMOUR. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936, vii + 187 pages.

The author attempts through an analysis of diplomatic papers to counteract the false accusations of the American bankers whom he totally exonerates. German submarine warfare was the deciding factor in our entrance into the war.

Mussolini's Italy, by HERMAN FINER. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1935, ix + 564 pages.

Although one of the most important recent books in this field and for the most part a fine objective analysis of the ideology and practices of Fascism, it contains many passages of scathing indictment which belie its purported impartiality.

The Ancestry of the Long Lived, by RAYMOND PEARL AND RUTH DE WITT PEARL. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1934, 168 pages.

In this careful and scientific investigation of the inheritance of human life duration, the authors have suggested a new measureable attribute for an individual known as *TIAL* (Total Immediate Ancestral Longevity). This measure consists of the sum of the ages at death of the six ancestors of the two immediately preceding generations. The distributions, variability, and interrelations of *TIAL* are analyzed for two groups of persons: one consisting of individuals 90 years of age or above and still living; the other composed of the oldest living siblings from sibships taken at random so far as longevity is concerned. The comparisons and interrelations of *TIAL* for the two groups show clearly that heredity is an important factor in the determination of the longevity of the individual human being. On the basis of the comparisons, a conservative estimate of the genetic influence is made.

Fascism and National Socialism, by MICHAEL T. FLORINSKY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, x + 292 pages.

This comparative study of the economic and social policies of the present regimes in Italy and Germany is in no sense a penetrating work of social or political significance. But it provides an illuminating prelude to any study of present-day events in Germany and Italy. The main interest of the book will be found in what Dr. Florinsky saw and heard in these countries. We thus learn that "history, law, economics, and philosophy have to be taught in the spirit of fascism and national socialism. Some professors still succeed in defeating the strictness of regulations, making use of this subterfuge or that, but their position is precarious, and it is all humiliating to the last degree." Those who have never found time to go through other more specialized books on the topic will doubtless learn from it much that they never knew.

I Write As I Please, by WALTER DURANTY. Simon and Schuster, viii + 349 pages.

The author, who has spent a large proportion of the last fourteen years in Russia, subordinates autobiography to a running description of his years in Russia. He retains the objective point of view of an independent reporter.

Sweden: The Middle Way, by MARQUIS W. CHILDS. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1935, 171 pages.

At a time "old dealers" seek a speedy return to laissez-faire and communists cry for the overthrow of "our archaic economic system," it is well to pause and ask "What is the Middle Way?"

The author does not attempt to answer for America or for any country other than Sweden. His references to other nations are but factual statements of business relations. Rather he describes and analyzes the middle way for Sweden—coöperatives and nationalization of industry under the Social Democrats. Step by step he traces its development from small, individual societies, the formation in 1899 of the Coöperative Union, the hazardous expansion into production as well as distribution and consumption, and its growing power demonstrated in 1932 when it successfully broke the monopoly of the General Electric Company.

Today it has evolved an international character through unification of coöperative in the Scandinavian peninsula, and through exchange of commodities with coöperatives in other nations. They have entered into the production of basic commodities and have built homes and apartments at prices ranging from 25 to 75 per cent of former costs. The Social Democrats swept into power in 1932, have established state monopolies, gained control of power systems, made provision for a pension system which will practically eliminate relief, decreased unemployment, and assured a living income to both urban and rural families. The entire book is a factual presentation showing failures as well as successes, difficulties as well as accomplishments. Although in no sense is it propaganda as the term is usually used, it is in fact more effective propaganda for seeking the middle way through coöperatives and state control.

Liberty vs. Equality, by WILLIAM F. RUSSELL. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, 173 pages.

This very readable little volume is an earnest appeal for the middle course between the two irreconcilable tenants of our Democracy. Education is the means by which the author hopes to resolve the dilemma. Considering the extent and scope of the literature and the necessity of redirecting it to less than a hundred pages, the author has made an excellent summary of the growth of these two concepts through the American sources and their origins in England and France. After tracing the domi-

nance of liberty in the early formulation of our government, he shows the growing importance of equality, with the public school, the focal point of the controversy, emerging triumphant.

With an abounding, an almost blind faith in the efficacy of the public school, the author draws a utopian picture of a land in which both liberty and equality are achieved and concludes that "the passport to this happy land is a liberal education." Unfortunately, however, the author does not indicate the means by which vested interests may be barred from the public schools, nor the agencies through which teachers may acquire the superhuman wisdom to reconcile in practice two concepts reconcilable only in the utopian web of social theory.

A Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe, by CARLTON J. H. HAYES. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, vol. II, xiv + 1,215 pages.

By analyzing "A Century of Predominantly Industrial Society, 1830-1935," Professor Hayes concludes his book. He belongs to that school of American historians which recognizes the possibility, as well as the desirability, of escaping from the narrowly political or economic framework of nineteenth-century historiography and of achieving a broadened cultural interpretation. In this respect, the late Dr. James Harvey Robinson and Dr. Harry Elmer Barnes, in addition to others, have produced historical studies which at a time of enforced reëvaluation, such as we are at present undergoing, however unconscious we might be of it, are the best examples of the so-called "new" history. Hayes's work is a brave and honest addition to the contributions of this school. It surveys the industrial revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and describes the events of Europe from the viewpoint of economic and political liberalism and romanticism and nationalism. The second part specializes in the period of 1870-1914, and the third concludes with the postwar period. Of special value are the chapters dealing with art and religion in the era of realism and the present period of disillusionment, progress and poverty, mechanical certainties and scientific doubt, religion and art in the contemporary world. Select bibliographies are not exhaustive but very useful. All in all, Hayes has little to add to our knowledge of what happened, but he has much to offer on the propelling forces of events and the springs from which they emanated. In this respect Hayes is brilliant without effort and clear without becoming common.

Statistical Procedures and Their Mathematical Bases, by CHARLES C. PETERS AND WALTER R. VANVOORHIS. State College, Pa.: Pennsylvania State College, 1935, 363 pages.

For the individual who is not thoroughly versed in the calculus, but desires to understand more thoroughly the derivation of the formulas for the statistical concepts used in biological and social investigations, this book will prove exceedingly helpful. It is a fairly successful attempt to steer a midway course between the oversimplified statistical texts, of which there are many, and the more technical works of the mathematicians. After a brief elementary presentation of the calculus principles involved in statistical derivations, the book is devoted to a step-by-step explanation of the mathematical bases of the more common statistical formulas. The authors clearly enumerate the assumptions that have been made in order to reduce some of our formulas to their present simplicity and emphasize the errors that frequently arise through the misuse of statistical formulas on data which do not conform to the assumptions on which the formulas were based. It is unfortunate that minor typographical errors persist throughout the book even though the first printing was recalled for corrections.

The Geographic Pattern of Mankind, by JOHN E. POMFRET; Kirtley F. Mather, Editor. Student's Edition. The Century Earth Science Series. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935, 442 pages.

The title is a clear indication of the plan of this textbook which is designed to serve as an introduction to the social sciences. It emphasizes the patterns resulting from the interaction between man's natural or physical environment and his social environment. The author's concern as a geographer is with location, topography, soils, and minerals as the "fixed" elements in this natural environment, with temperature, pressure, winds, humidity, and precipitation playing the role of variables and so giving rise to certain "climactic types." This is the angle from which he presents the various cultures, recognizing, however, the dominance of "Euramerican culture with its nuclei in Western Europe and the United States."

Principles and Laws of Sociology, by HAROLD A. PHELPS. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1936, 544 pages.

As the reader comes to the end of this volume, he is left with two gen-

eral impressions: the almost complete failure of sociology to clearly define its field of study, and the paucity of tangible data as compared with the enormous volume of sociological theory.

This is no fault of the author unless it be the direct result of the thoroughness with which he has attacked his task, "an analysis and criticism of the scientific nature of principles and the content of laws in sociology." For students in advanced courses in sociology and those interested in its theoretical aspects, this volume will prove invaluable.

BOOKS RECEIVED

- Roots of Crime*, by FRANZ ALEXANDER AND WILLIAM HEALY. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Single, the Engaged and the Married*, by MAURICE CHIDECKEL. New York: Eugenics Publishing Company.
- Social Determinants in Juvenile Delinquency*, by T. EARL SULLENGER. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*, 14th Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association.
- Society in Action*, by HELEN HALTER. New York: Inor Publishing Company.
- Statistics for Students of Psychology and Education*, by HERBERT SOR-
ENSON. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Story of Instruction*, by ERNEST CARROLL MOORE. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Sweden: The Middle Way*, by MARQUIS W. CHILDS. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Sex Education*, by MAURICE A. BIGELOW. New York: American Social Hygiene Association.
- Social Case Recording*, by GORDON HAMILTON. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Social Psychology*, by RICHARD T. LAPIERE AND PAUL R. FARNSWORTH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Solving Personal Problems*, by HARRISON SACKET ELLIOTT AND GRACE LOUCKS ELLIOTT. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Statistical Tables: Their Structure and Use*, by HELEN M. WALKER AND WALTER N. DUROST. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

